

1 **A new occurrence of the Early Jurassic brachiopod *Anarhynchia* from the Canadian**
2 **Cordillera confirms its membership in chemosynthesis-based ecosystems**

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18 **Abstract:** Cold seeps, where seepage of hydrocarbon-rich fluids occurs in the sea floor, are
19 sites which harbor highly specialized ecosystems associated with distinctive carbonate
20 sediments. Although their Mesozoic record is scarce and patchy, it commonly includes
21 dimerelloid rhynchonellide brachiopods. Here we report a monospecific assemblage of
22 *Anarhynchia* from a limestone boulder of Early Pliensbachian (Early Jurassic) age in the
23 Inklin Formation of the Whitehorse Trough in the Stikine terrane, from a locality at Atlin
24 Lake in northern British Columbia. Specimens are among the largest known Mesozoic
25 brachiopods, up to 9 cm in length, and described here as *Anarhynchia smithi* n. sp. Early
26 precipitated carbonate cement phases of the limestone have carbon isotopic composition
27 highly depleted in ^{13}C , indicative of the influence of microbial oxidation of methane derived
28 from a cold seep. Carbonate petrography of the banded-fibrous cement and other
29 characteristic components supports this paleoenvironmental inference. Volcanogenic detrital
30 grains in the matrix are indistinguishable from those in the sandstone layers in the siliciclastic
31 sequence, suggesting that the seep carbonate is broadly coeval with the enclosing
32 conglomerate. The new record extends the geographic range and species-level diversity of the
33 genus, but supports its endemism to the East Pacific and membership in chemosynthesis-
34 based ecosystems. The distribution of three distinct but congeneric species suggests that
35 allopatric speciation occurred at separate sites along the active margin of western North
36 America, and *Anarhynchia* was restricted to seep and vent habitats in the Early Jurassic.

37

Introduction

39 Cold seeps are sites where seepage of methane and/or other hydrocarbon-rich fluids and
40 hydrogen-sulfide emanates from the sea floor. Their geological record contains fossils
41 representative of highly specialized ecosystems associated with distinctive carbonate
42 sediments (Flügel 2010; Kiel 2010a; Joseph 2013) . Their record is scarce and patchy, yet it
43 provides crucial clues to reconstruct the evolution of several unrelated groups which were
44 adapted to this peculiar environment and constitute the members of their chemosynthesis-
45 based communities. The fossil biota of cold seeps consists of sedentary benthic organisms,
46 mostly mollusks, tube worms and brachiopods (Campbell 2006; Kiel 2010a,b). Their
47 hallmarks typically include brachiopods of unusually large size of individuals and mono- or
48 oligospecific composition of assemblages (Sandy 2010). The unusual depositional setting is
49 also indicated by the enclosing sediment, often dominated by fluid seepage-derived material
50 such as authigenic carbonate and/or sulfide minerals (Flügel 2010).

51 The membership of skeletonized metazoans in cold seep-related biotas varies throughout
52 the Phanerozoic. Brachiopods form the most common group in the Late Paleozoic–Early
53 Cretaceous cold seep assemblages (Campbell and Bottjer 1995), exclusively containing
54 members of the rhynchonellide superfamily Dimerelloidea (Sandy 2010).

55 In this study we report a monospecific brachiopod occurrence from a boulder-sized
56 limestone clast found in the Atlin Lake area, British Columbia. The unusual mode of
57 appearance together with the surprisingly large size of the brachiopods raised suspicion about
58 the peculiarity of the fossils. The original identification of the fossils as *Halorella* is now
59 corrected, as serial sections help assign them to the genus *Anarhynchia*. Morphological
60 differences from previously described forms warrant the introduction of a new species. The
61 aim of paleoecological analysis from the new occurrence of this genus, complemented with
62 results of carbonate petrography and stable isotope geochemistry, is to provide independent

63 lines of evidence to assess its cold seep affinity. We contribute to the debate whether the
64 genus is an obligate or facultative, opportunistic member of chemosynthesis-based
65 communities. Cold seeps preferentially occur at tectonically active margins, and western
66 North America preserves a long geological history of a convergent margin. However,
67 Mesozoic cold seep occurrences have so far only been known from California and Oregon,
68 but not from the Canadian Cordillera, hence our new record from northern British Columbia
69 helps fill a gap. Given that the record of cold seep biota is inherently patchy both spatially and
70 temporally, each new occurrence is significant for the growing database of these peculiar
71 fossil assemblages and provides new insights to the mode of adaptation, community structure,
72 and evolutionary relationships of seep dwellers (Kiel et al. 2014).

73 **Geological setting**

74 The fossil locality which yielded the brachiopods reported here lies on the eastern shore
75 of Copper Island within Atlin Lake (Fig. 1) in northwestern British Columbia, the
76 westernmost province of Canada. Copper Island is located in the southern part of the lake,
77 which is the largest natural lake in the province, with its northern tip extending into Yukon
78 Territory.

79 Bedrock geology of this part of the Atlin Lake area is characteristic of the northern
80 segment of the Whitehorse Trough, an elongated early Mesozoic marine sedimentary basin.
81 The NW-SE trending Whitehorse Trough is regarded as an arc-marginal depocenter next to
82 the east-facing Stikine magmatic arc comprising the Upper Triassic Stuhini Group and the
83 Lower to Middle Jurassic Hazelton Group or the broadly coeval, stratigraphically equivalent
84 Laberge Group to the north, which together form a major component of the Stikine terrane,
85 the largest tectonostratigraphic terrane in the Canadian Cordillera (Monger and Price 2002)
86 (Fig. 1A). The Whitehorse Trough was affected by shortening and tectonic imbrication as a

87 thrust and fold belt developed during the accretionary history of the Cordilleran orogen.
88 Southwest-vergent thrusts of mid-Jurassic age include the King Salmon Fault to the west and
89 the Nahlin Fault to the east of the fossil locality; the latter represents the terrane boundary
90 juxtaposing volcanosedimentary arc assemblages of Stikine terrane to oceanic assemblages of
91 the Cache Creek terrane (Monger et al. 1991) (Fig. 1B).

92 Stratigraphy of the northern Whitehorse Trough is dominated by the Lower to Middle
93 Jurassic (Sinemurian to Aalenian) siliciclastic sequences of the Laberge Group (English et al.
94 2005). Transport of arc-derived sediment from the west resulted in deposition of coarser-
95 grained conglomerates (Takwahoni Formation) in proximal settings and generally finer-
96 grained rocks of the Inklin Formation in more distal setting in the forearc basin characterized
97 by coalescing submarine fan systems (Johannson et al. 1997). The brachiopods were found in
98 the Inklin Formation, which is faulted against Upper Triassic rocks on Copper Island and the
99 southern Atlin Lake area, where the proximal facies is tectonically missing (Wight et al.
100 2004). The Inklin Formation here is Sinemurian to Late Pliensbachian in age and may reach
101 up to 3500–4000 m in thickness (Johannson et al. 1997). The brachiopods occur in a boulder-
102 sized clast at GSC locality No. C-203329 (UTM grid coordinates: 560350 E, 6572875 N;
103 NTS 1:50 000 map sheet 104N/05), where associated fine-grained layers yielded
104 *Metaderoceras cf. evolutum*, an ammonoid indicative of the Lower Pliensbachian Imlayi and
105 Whiteavesi zones (Johannson et al. 1997) of the North American regional biostratigraphic
106 scheme (Smith et al. 1988).

107 The Lower Pliensbachian part of the Inklin Fm. is up to 1500–2000 m thick,
108 conglomerate interbeds are volumetrically minor and contain mostly volcanic clasts,
109 recording rapid basin subsidence and coeval growth of the volcanic arc (Johannson et al.
110 1997). At the brachiopod locality, pebble counts reveal a subordinate siliciclastic sedimentary
111 component (8%) and extremely rare limestone clasts which represent only 1% of the total.

112 Johannson et al. (1997) suggest an intraformational origin of the siliciclastic sedimentary
113 clasts, in sharp contrast to the underlying Sinemurian conglomerate beds which contain
114 abundant clasts of the Upper Triassic Sinwa Limestone Formation. Johannson (1994) not only
115 noted the rarity of limestone clasts, but also comments on the peculiar fossil content of the
116 dark grey skeletal rudstone embedded in a conglomerate layer. Detailed geological mapping
117 confirmed the predominance of finer-grained lithologies, mostly sandstone (feldspathic to
118 lithic greywacke) and siltstone within the Inklin Formation exposed on Copper Island (Wight
119 et al. 2004; Fig. 1C). The depositional setting there comprises predominantly mid-fan facies
120 with relatively minor lower fan to fan-fringe deposits; no upper fan facies were identified in
121 the study area. The conglomerate unit is unusual for its atypical thickness and coarse clast
122 size for the Inklin succession at Atlin Lake, particularly for Lower Pliensbachian
123 conglomerate there, which is strongly dominated by pebble-grade conglomerate (Johannson
124 1994). The unit comprises a 21 m thick layer of inverse to normally-graded pebble-cobble
125 conglomerate with a modal clast size of 8.4 cm and an average maximum clast size of 29.6
126 cm: boulders were a minor component and typically small, rarely exceeding 35 cm (Fig. 2).
127 The brachiopod-bearing boulder was among the largest of the conglomerate boulders with
128 approximate dimensions of 35 x 25 x 20cm (Fig. 3), and was the only carbonate lithology
129 present. The same degree of rounding and sphericity is not evident in this limestone boulder
130 when compared with the typical coarse conglomerate clasts (Figs. 2B and 3A) and suggests a
131 markedly different and shorter transport history, especially in view of its relative lack of
132 hardness and greater susceptibility to mechanical abrasion.

133 The here studied brachiopod assemblage originates from an active margin setting, from a
134 forearc basin controlled by tectonic activity in the vicinity of a subduction zone. Although
135 tectonic models differ in reconstructing either an intra-oceanic arc (Sigloch and Mihalynuk
136 2013), accretionary ribbon continent (Johnston 2008) or an arc flanking a marginal sea in

137 proximity of ancient North America (Colpron et al. 2007), they all provide for deep marine
138 environments prone to either hydrothermal fluids or cold seeps emanating from
139 synsedimentary faults.

140 **Material and methods**

141 The brachiopods were collected in 1992 by one of the authors (GGJ) during his field
142 work for an MSc thesis project. The sample originates from a large boulder-sized limestone
143 clast, distinguished by its fossil content. Johannson (1994) noted that “this dark grey skeletal
144 rudstone represents an in situ accumulation of monospecific brachiopods of unusually large
145 size. A range of juvenile through mature forms is found in this close-packed brachiopod
146 ‘paleonest’ with some specimens attaining long dimensions in excess of 10 cm – a size that is
147 unusually large for brachiopods”. In this thesis and subsequent paper (Johannson et al. 1997)
148 the brachiopod was identified as *Halorella* sp., following a suggestion of the first author of
149 the present study. The identification, proved erroneous here, was prompted by external
150 similarity to this well-known Late Triassic brachiopod genus, and the possibility of the
151 limestone clast deriving from the Upper Triassic Sinwa Formation.

152 Because the uniqueness of the fossil find, unusual mode of occurrence and large size
153 defied simple explanation, all collected material was subjected to further paleontological,
154 sedimentological and geochemical study. The available material includes 11 brachiopod
155 specimens. All are well-preserved, mostly articulated valves of shelly specimens, although
156 some are fragmentary. Transverse serial sections for studying the internal morphology were
157 made using standard techniques (Sandy 1986). Photographed specimens were coated with
158 ammonium chloride.

159 Thin sections for carbonate petrography were studied using a Nikon Labophot2-Pol
160 optical microscope. Selected thin sections were partially stained with a mixture of potassium
161 ferricyanide and alizarin red dissolved in HCl.

162 Carbonate samples were analyzed at Plymouth University for carbon and oxygen stable
163 isotopes. Using 200 to 300 µg of carbonate, stable isotope data were generated on a VG
164 Optima mass spectrometer with a Gilson autosampler. Isotope ratios were calibrated using
165 NBS19 standards and are given in δ notation relative to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite
166 (VPDB). Reproducibility was generally better than 0.1‰ for samples and standard materials.

167 Subsamples taken for trace element analysis were digested in HNO₃ and analysed by
168 Inductively Coupled Plasma–Atomic Emission Spectrometer (ICP–AES) using a PerkinElmer
169 3100 at Plymouth University. Based upon analysis of duplicate samples reproducibility was
170 better than ± 3% of the measured concentration of each element. Repeat analyses of standards
171 JLS–1 and BCS CRM 393 was within 2% of the certified values for Sr, Mn, Ca and Mg and
172 10% for Fe.

173 **Results**

174 **Systematic paleontology** (by J. Pálffy and A. Vörös)

175 The studied material is deposited with the National Invertebrate and Plant Type Fossil
176 Collection in Ottawa, Ontario. The classification of Manceñido and Owen (2001) and
177 Williams et al. (2002) is followed here.

178

179 **Phylum Brachiopoda Dumeril 1806**

180 **Subphylum Rhynchonelliformea Williams et al. 1996**

181 Class Rhynchonellata Williams et al. 1996

182 Order Rhynchonellida Kuhn 1949

183 Superfamily Dimerelloidea Buckman 1918

184 Family Peregrinellidae Ager 1965

185 Subfamily Peregrinelloideinae Dagens 1968

186 Genus *Anarhynchia* Ager 1968

187 **Remarks:** The genus was introduced when its type species, *Anarhynchia gabbi* was first
188 described by Ager (1968). An externally similar rhynchonellid genus, *Peregrinelloidea* was
189 erected in the same year by Dagens (1968) and it was subsequently suggested that they may be
190 synonyms with the latter name having priority (Manceñido and Dagens 1992). However,
191 further studies of the internal structure of *A. gabbi* and its comparison with serial sections of
192 the Siberian forms clearly establish differences in their crura which warrant retaining them as
193 separate genera (Sandy 2001).

194 *Anarhynchia smithi* n. sp.

195 Figs. 4.1-7, 5, 6, 7a-b

196 **Diagnosis:** Biconvex rhynchonellide of subcircular shell outline and straight commissures,
197 attaining unusually large size for its group. Coarsely ornamented by blunt ribs, some
198 irregularly splitting into secondaries. Ventral valve with massive hinge teeth and no dental
199 plates, dorsal valve with prominent cardinal process and no median septum. Long and
200 ventrally curved, blade-like crura of submergiform to ensiform type.

201 **Types:** Holotype – GSC 139295, paratypes – GSC 139294, 139297, 139298.

202 **Other material:** Seven other specimens.

203 **Type locality and horizon:** East shore of Copper Island, Atlin Lake, British Columbia,
204 Canada; boulder-sized limestone clast in the Inklin Formation, Whiteavesi Zone, Lower
205 Pliensbachian, Lower Jurassic.

206 **Measurements:** See Tables 1 and S1.

207 **Etymology:** Named after Paul L. Smith, for his contribution to the Early Jurassic ammonoid
208 paleontology and biostratigraphy of the Canadian Cordillera and his mentoring of students in
209 these topics.

210 **Description. External characters** (Fig. 4): Biconvex shell of unusually large size (up to 90
211 mm in length), with subcircular outline. Lateral margins convex with an apical angle of 95–
212 100°. Width and length nearly equal, with largest width attained at mid-length. Ventral and
213 dorsal valves nearly equally convex. Anterior commissure rectimarginate, lateral commissures
214 straight. Beak high and straight, with well-defined beak ridges. Pedicle foramen mesothyrid,
215 deltidial plates present. Both valves ornamented with strong, blunt ribs of rounded triangular
216 profile. Number of ribs between 9 to 15, more numerous on large specimens. Ribbing
217 irregular due to secondary ribs of variable strength which develop by splitting of some of
218 central primaries at 2/3 to 4/5 of length on large-sized specimens.

219 **Internal characters** (Figs. 5, 6): Ventral valve: Umbonal cavity laterally expanded oval in
220 cross-section. No dental plates. Hinge teeth massive, vertical; denticula not present. Pedicle
221 collar and deltidial plates not recorded. Dorsal valve: Cardinal process strong and high, with
222 incipient median groove on its top. Median septum and septalium absent. Outer socket ridges
223 minute. Inner socket ridges well-developed and high; supported by a massive structure
224 emerging as double plates from wall of umbonal cavity of dorsal valve. Hinge plates very
225 wide and nearly horizontal. Crural bases develop nearly medially and somewhat dorsally,

226 giving rise to very long, blade-like, submergiform crura. Their strong curvature and pointed
227 ends leads to near touching of ventral valve, therefore they may be qualified as of ensiform
228 type.

229 **Remarks:** The generic attribution to *Anarhynchia* is well-supported by the external features
230 of biconvex shell of large size, subcircular outline, rectimarginate commissure and strong
231 ribbing, as well as the internal characters such as the elongate, ventrally curved and blade like
232 crura. Apart from the type species *A. gabbi* known from California, a distinctly more coarsely
233 ribbed but as yet unnamed species is reported from Oregon (Manceñido and Dagys 1992;
234 Sandy 2001, 2010). The new species introduced here also differs from *A. gabbi* in its less
235 numerous ribs, whereas its irregular ornamentation manifest in sporadic splitting into
236 secondary ribs of variable strength sets it apart from both congeneric species. It is also
237 distinguished by attaining significantly larger size, and the higher convexity of the shell.
238 External morphometric distinction among the three species of *Anarhynchia* is summarized in
239 Fig. 7 (see also Table S1). These graphs also demonstrate the greater morphological
240 variability of the new species. Although serial sections are only available for three specimens
241 (Ager 1968; Sandy 2001; and Fig. 5 herein), their internal features are remarkably similar,
242 including the characteristic double plates in the umbonal cavity of the dorsal valve, the new
243 species differing mainly in its more prominent hinge teeth and longer submergiform, nearly
244 ensiform crura (Figs. 5, 6). The hinge plates of the new species are wider than those of *A.*
245 *gabbi* but similar to *Peregrinelloidea*, nevertheless it is clearly distinguished from the latter
246 genus by the presence of double plates. A specimen tentatively assigned to *Anarhynchia* is
247 reported from South America, from the Rio Atuel area in Argentina (Manceñido and Dagys
248 1992). Externally, it falls closest to *A. gabbi* among the three North American species (Table
249 S1).

250 **Carbonate petrography**

251 The detrital grain fillings of the brachiopods comprise the volumetrically largest part of
252 the samples (Fig. 8A), where these grains are embedded in a micritic matrix (matrix color is
253 brown to orange under CL, see Fig. 9A) that also contains abundant pyrite. The detrital grains
254 display moderate to moderately poor sorting; grain size is dominantly fine to coarse with
255 minor very fine and very coarse grains. Broken and whole crystal euhedra are ubiquitous;
256 consequently, grain shape is predominantly angular to very angular with the siliciclastics
257 exhibiting a pronounced tuffaceous character (Figs. 9A, S1). The modal mineralogy is
258 comprised predominantly of feldspar with lesser lithic grains and minor quartz grains (Fig.
259 S1). The feldspar component is strongly dominated by plagioclase, the lithic grains are
260 composed almost entirely of volcanic lithologies, and the minor quartz grains appear to be of
261 mostly volcanic derivation, attributes indicative of volcanogenic provenance.

262 A banded-fibrous cement phase is identified as early cement, which is almost exclusively
263 developed as isopachous layers of a thickness of c. 1.5 mm (Fig. 8A). This type of cement
264 most commonly occurs within the brachiopod shells, but occasionally it also lines cavities, or
265 in rare cases it develops on the shells or surrounds shell fragment (Fig. 8B). The staining
266 reveals that the banded-fibrous cement is composed of calcite, although it is not homogenous
267 and was subject to recrystallization to varying degrees. The effect of recrystallization becomes
268 progressively greater towards the interior as reflected by coarser calcite crystals. After
269 staining, the more fibrous part and the banding display red color, whereas the coarser part is
270 pink. Under cathodoluminescence (CL) the cement phase also shows different colours
271 according to the recrystallization. The better preserved parts are mainly nonluminescent, but
272 they are cross-cut by veins, which display orange color (Fig. 9B,D). The more recrystallized
273 part is mottled under CL, and shows pale-orange, brown color (Fig. 9D).

274 Rarely, micrite with abundant pyrite envelopes the shell or the banded cement in a
275 thickness of 200–250 μm (Fig. 8A). In some cavities the earliest cement phase is followed by
276 two other phases (Fig. 8C). The older of these is brownish in color, shows undulose extinction
277 similar to the banded-fibrous cement, but their crystal habit is different. The younger phase
278 consists of equant calcite cement. After staining, the purple or blue color of the originally
279 brownish cement points to elevated Fe content (Fig. 8D). In some cases the cavities are filled
280 with only this cement generation inside a thin calcite rim. Apart from these types of cavity
281 filling, yellow calcite was also observed in some vugs (Fig. 8E). Comparing the stained thin
282 section and the CL image, it is observed that the more purple the cement phase is after
283 staining, the darker it appears under CL (Figs. 8D, 9B).

284 An additional important constituent is the micrite with abundant detrital grains, quartz
285 and plant fragments. It often forms intraclasts of different shapes (Fig. 8F) that are most
286 commonly rounded and 300–400 μm in diameter. In the vicinity of intraclasts, the same
287 material forms small (50 μm in diameter) micrite clots (Fig. 8G). On the basis of their
288 different shapes and sizes, they probably represent reworked sediment. The individual clasts
289 and clots are radially surrounded by calcite spar and commonly form separate areas with
290 peloidal fabric, which are bordered by banded-fibrous cement (Fig. 8G). Under CL an area
291 composed of recrystallized pyrite-rich micrite shows bright orange luminescence (Fig. 9D).

292 Although in some cases rounded, sack-shaped traces of boring occur in the cement
293 adjacent to the shell, bioerosion is very rare overall and was observed in only one sample
294 (Fig. 10A). Silicification is a similarly rare feature. An example of silica mineral phases is
295 those grown within a brachiopod shell after the early cement precipitation and geopetal
296 sediment filling. The fibrous microcrystalline silica shows undulose extinction. This phase is
297 overgrown by quartz crystals (Fig. 8H). Fossils other than brachiopods were observed only in

298 one case, in the form of a thin bivalve shell, which can be differentiated from brachiopod shell
299 based on the lacking fibrous microstructure (Fig. 10B).

300 **Stable isotope and elemental geochemistry**

301 The isotopic composition of the carefully drilled, component-specific samples falls into
302 four clusters on the basis of their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. Notably, these clusters closely
303 correspond to the different components distinguished by carbonate petrography (Table S2,
304 Fig. 11). The banded-fibrous cement phase yielded the most negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in the range
305 of -39.8 to -14.8‰ (disregarding a single outlier). The matrix is the second most $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
306 depleted component, with values between -16.6 to -4.3‰, and their $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values are also quite
307 negative, similar to the late diagenetic phases. These later phases, the equant calcite spar and
308 the ferroan calcite fall into the same cluster, as they are characterized with $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values around
309 -14‰ and only slightly depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, in the range of -6.8 to 0.2‰. The measured brachiopod
310 shell samples form a distinct group with the least negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-5.2 to 0.7‰) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (-7.3
311 to -4.2‰) values. The Mg, Fe, and Mn content measured on selected samples (Table S3) did
312 not reveal any excessive overprint by post-diagenetic fluid mobilization, therefore the stable
313 isotope values are interpreted as reflecting primary, and early and late diagenetic processes.

314 **Discussion**

315 ***Anarhynchia* as a seep-related brachiopod**

316 The brachiopod *Anarhynchia* has been shown to occur in habitats at cold seeps and
317 hydrothermal vents in California and Oregon (Sandy 1995, 2001; Little et al. 1999, 2004), and
318 is unique in occupying both environments which harbor chemosynthesis-based communities

319 (Sandy 2010). Our new record of *Anarhynchia* extends the known geographic distribution of
320 the genus and sheds new light on some aspects of its taxonomy and paleoecology.

321 The studied assemblage satisfies the criteria of chemosynthesis-based communities
322 proposed by Sandy (2010): it is of low diversity (in fact monospecific with respect to
323 brachiopods), and contains large individuals. The tight packing of individuals together with
324 the size distribution of shells in the boulder suggests preservation of an in-situ community,
325 including a range of ontogenetic states from juveniles to adults (Fig. 3).

326 Although Lower Jurassic, and specifically Pliensbachian fossiliferous rocks have been
327 intensively studied in the Canadian Cordillera (Smith et al. 1988), brachiopods are relatively
328 rare (Sandy 2001). The active margin setting may not have favored the brachiopods' inclusion
329 in shallow marine benthic communities, where bivalves were clearly much more abundant
330 (Aberhan 1998). The patchy distribution of *Anarhynchia*, with the here described occurrence
331 complementing its record from California and Oregon, hints at a highly specialized mode of
332 life, indeed it is in agreement with its proposed affinity to cold seep and hydrothermal vent
333 habitats (Little et al. 1999, 2004; Sandy 1995, 2001, 2010). The new species *Anarhynchia*
334 *smithi*, and the demonstration of its distinctness from *A. gabbi* and the as yet unnamed species
335 from Oregon establishes the genus as the oldest one among the proposed seep and vent
336 associated brachiopod genera to include three separate species. As all three species are close
337 in their Early Jurassic age range (Pliensbachian, and possibly Sinemurian), it is reasonable to
338 propose that larval hopping allowed for dispersal among scattered cold seep and hydrothermal
339 vent sites along the East Pacific margin, the specific adaptation permitted successful
340 colonization, and allopatric speciation took place. (A notable Cretaceous example of seep-
341 related dimerelloid brachiopod genus with multiple species is *Peregrinella* (Sandy and
342 Peckmann 2016)). The new species *A. smithi* shows the greatest morphologic variability
343 among the three congeneric species, including the range of its shape, convexity, and the

344 irregularity of its secondary ribbing. Such morphological plasticity may be an ecophenotypic
345 expression inherent in the adaptation to the highly specialized and localized seep
346 environment. Crowding of specimens at seep sites may have been an additional factor that led
347 to morphologic variability, as noted for *Sulcirostra*, another seep-related Early Jurassic
348 dimerelloid brachiopod with a western North American occurrence in the Sinemurian of
349 Eastern Oregon (Peckmann et al. 2013)

350 Although it cannot be conclusive, our new record strengthens the case that *Anarhynchia*
351 may be an obligate seep or vent dweller, exclusively adapted to chemosynthesis-based
352 ecosystems (Sandy 2010). The giant size of adult individuals ranks the new species among the
353 largest known Mesozoic brachiopods, together with other seep-associated forms such as the
354 Late Triassic *Halorella* and Early Cretaceous *Peregrinella* (Sandy 2010). Its growth may have
355 been facilitated by harboring bacterial chemosymbionts, although at present that remains
356 speculative.

357 The fact that only a single bivalve shell was observed in thin section (Fig. 10B) provides
358 further evidence that Mesozoic chemosynthesis-based communities were strongly dominated
359 by rhynchonellids before the Late Cretaceous (Kiel and Peckmann 2008). The key group is
360 dimerelloids, where *Anarhynchia* also belongs. As its internal structures are best documented
361 from the new serial sections, it will help assessments of debated evolutionary relationships
362 (Gischler et al. 2003) and the question of monophyly (Sandy 2010) within the group.

363 **Petrographic evidence for cold seep-related carbonate**

364 Carbonate petrography provides additional evidence for the cold seep-related habitat of
365 the brachiopods, as several hallmarks of seep-related carbonates are best identified by
366 petrography. One typical, albeit in itself not exclusively characteristic feature of ancient and
367 modern seep-related limestones is the occurrence of fibrous cement, which forms isopachous,

368 commonly banded rims and/or shows botryoidal habit (Campbell et al. 2002; Buggisch and
369 Krumm 2005; Teichert et al. 2005; Peckmann et al. 2007, 2011; Kiel and Peckmann 2008;
370 Miyajima et al. 2016). In our samples only the isopachous, banded type was identified.
371 Staining revealed that this early cement generation is composed of calcite. However, because
372 in some of our samples recrystallization was observed, and this type of cement consists of
373 aragonite in modern (Teichert et al. 2005) and relatively young, Late Eocene (Peckmann et al.
374 2003) and Late Miocene (Miyajima et al. 2016) seep carbonates, it is possible that the cement
375 in our samples may also have had an aragonitic precursor. From botryoidal cement of
376 geologically older seep carbonates, high Sr content and textural characteristics were suggested
377 as possible indicators of a previous aragonite phase (Peckmann et al. 2001*a*, 2007; Buggisch
378 and Krumm 2005). Aragonite botryoids were reported from one remarkable Jurassic
379 occurrence (Peckmann et al. 1999). The nonluminescent character of the fibrous calcite was
380 documented by Campbell et al. (2002) and Buggisch and Krumm (2005) as well. Based on
381 elemental geochemistry of the cement phases, Buggisch and Krumm (2005) suggested that the
382 isopachous and botryoidal calcite was previously aragonite and that the low Mn content of the
383 original aragonite is in agreement with the absence of luminescence.

384 Additional observations, such as the layered composition of cements and micrite, and the
385 abundant pyrite content, are also in agreement with the inferred seep environment (Flügel
386 2010). Pyrite is thought to be present in high abundance because sulfate-driven anaerobic
387 oxidation of methane is the governing processes of carbonate precipitation at cold seeps
388 (Peckmann et al. 1999).

389 These features, i.e. the presence of the banded-fibrous cement and abundant pyrite,
390 although often described from seep carbonates, are clearly not restricted to this facies, hence
391 the importance of stable isotope geochemistry in supplying additional evidence. Regarding
392 the microfacies the most reliable component indicative of the origin of seep limestones is the

393 yellow calcite, although different theories have been proposed about its origin. According to
394 Beauchamp and Savard (1992), it develops as a cement phase in pore space, whereas
395 Peckmann et al. (2003) and Birgel et al. (2006) postulate that it replaces aragonite cement,
396 and Campbell et al. (2002) suggest that it replaces previous micrite because in their samples
397 the crystals tend to grow from corroded micrite. For our thin sections, where yellow calcite
398 occurs exclusively in vugs, only one of the first two explanations is reasonable. The position
399 of the yellow calcite in the diagenetic sequence remains undetermined in our sample as there
400 is no other carbonate phase in these cavities.

401 Micrite or microcrystalline carbonate containing pyrite, organic material (such as plant
402 fragments in our samples), and sand-sized grains are often recognized in seep limestones (e.g.
403 Peckmann et al. 2003; Birgel et al. 2006; Joseph et al. 2013; Miyajima et al. 2016). Although
404 only three stable isotope measurements were obtained in this matrix, it is obvious that they
405 tend to show more enriched values than the early banded-fibrous cement phase, but are more
406 depleted than the equant calcite spar of late diagenetic origin. The observations that this
407 micrite often shows rounded forms, similar to peloid and clotted texture, and these areas
408 almost exclusively occur in the vicinity of banded-fibrous cement, help relate the genesis of
409 this phase to cold seep activity. Formation of the intraclasts was probably related to the fluid
410 flow. The micrite shows orange luminescence as also described by Campbell et al. (2002);
411 they also related this phase to fluid seepage, specifically to an early, reduced phase of
412 methane flow.

413 Fibrous microcrystalline silica followed by precipitation of euhedral quartz crystals are
414 not unfamiliar features in seep limestones. Based on the observed paragenetic sequence,
415 Kuechler et al. (2012) identified a possible pathway of silicification, and later Smrzka et al.
416 (2015) tested their hypothesis using the computer program PHREEQC. According to these
417 studies, an increase in pH due to the anaerobic oxidation of methane would lead to dissolution

418 of silica phases, e.g. radiolarian tests. Subsequently, after the anaerobic oxidation of methane
419 the pH decreases, and it creates conditions favorable to precipitation of silica. However, the
420 genesis of this mineral phase in our samples needs to be explained in another way, as neither
421 the carbonate nor the enclosing sediment contains siliceous microfossils. It can be interpreted
422 in the context of the regionally typical diagenetic alteration. This diagenetic relationship is
423 consistent with regional paragenesis for volcanoclastic sandstone (Galloway 1974, 1979;
424 Surdam and Boles 1984; Lee 1992) in general, and the Inklin Formation in the study area in
425 particular, where two phases of silica precipitation were documented in sandstone (Johansson
426 1994). In a generalized diagenetic sequence for these sediments in active margin setting, the
427 siliceous overgrowths are mostly among the latest phases, as it was observed in the Inklin
428 Formation as well. It seems implicit that some degree of porosity and permeability should be
429 inherent in the limestone boulder post-lithification and the source of the silica would then be
430 derived from the same source as the enclosing sediments.

431 The rarity of bioerosion, and the sometimes sack-formed borings, which may be caused
432 by fungi could imply a deep water setting. These characteristics alone would not be
433 convincing enough to determine the depositional setting, but are in agreement with the
434 conclusion based on the field observations. Furthermore, the outsized nature of the carbonate
435 boulder plus its poorly developed rounding relative to the other clasts is strongly suggestive of
436 a short transport history that would be consistent with entrainment from a seep limestone
437 mound in a deep-water setting during a high-density sediment gravity flow event.

438 **Isotope geochemical evidence for cold seep origin**

439 Stable isotope geochemistry can yield another crucial, independent line of evidence for
440 the habitat of brachiopods, as carbonate mineral phases constituting cold seep-related
441 limestone inherit the ^{13}C -depleted isotopic composition of the parent fluid containing

442 hydrocarbons. Thus their stable isotopic composition, primarily their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value, is a valuable
443 tracer of the components formed in the environments of fluid seepage. Biogenic and
444 thermogenic methane, as well as longer-chain hydrocarbons differ in their typical stable
445 isotope signatures (Campbell 2006). Commonly, however, the seep carbonates do not record
446 such negative values as these fluids because they become mixed with less depleted carbon
447 derived from seawater or from degradation of organic matter (Campbell 2006; Peckmann et
448 al. 2009, 2011). This mixing can lead to large deviation from the original values, depending
449 on the flow rates and the diffusive or advective nature of the seepage. Peckmann et al. (2009)
450 verified the methane content of the fluids using biomarkers in carbonates with only
451 moderately negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of 14‰. Biomarkers are useful to unambiguously prove the
452 presence of methane and other hydrocarbons, e.g. pyrobitumen is shown to confirm a crude
453 oil component (Peckmann et al. 2007).

454 Many studies documented highly to moderately depleted carbonate carbon isotopic
455 signatures for the banded-fibrous and banded-botryoidal cement phases (e.g. Campbell et al.
456 2002; Birgel et al. 2006; Hryniewicz et al. 2016; Miyajima et al. 2016; Kiel et al. 2017).
457 Similar, very negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values recorded in this cement phase of our samples provides
458 evidence for a genetic relationship to methane-bearing seepage even without biomarker data.
459 Isotope values as low as -39.8‰ cannot be explained by any process other than mixing
460 biogenic methane with less depleted sources. Our results, in the range of -37.6 to -25.9‰,
461 closely match those published by Peckmann et al. (1999, 2001*b*) (-34.8 to -27‰) (Fig. 11),
462 that could support the role of methane oxidation by additional biomarker studies.

463 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values measured in the matrix of our samples, although less depleted than those
464 of the early diagenetic banded-fibrous cement phase, are nevertheless negative enough to
465 confidently relate their origin to seep hydrocarbons. Several studies report similar isotopic
466 offset between the matrix and the banded-fibrous cement phase (e.g. Peckmann et al. 2001*a*;

467 Kiel et al. 2017) (Fig. 11). Campbell et al. (2002) proposed an evolutionary trend of the
468 phases and their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values, suggesting that micrite forms in the early stage of the
469 seepage, followed by yellow calcite and subsequent precipitation of the fibrous calcite phase.
470 This sequence leads to a shift towards more depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and parallel enrichment in
471 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. Both stable isotopes in our samples fit well into this trend, providing explanation for the
472 different degrees of depletion observed. Campbell et al. (2002) also established that the
473 equant, blocky calcite spar represents a late diagenetic component, characterized by higher
474 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and lower $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ than the previous phase, commonly exhibiting the lowest $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. In
475 our samples the oxygen isotopic values of the late diagenetic phases (i.e. equant spar and
476 ferroan calcite) overlap with those of the micrite, but still show the same trend when
477 comparing with the early cement phase. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values as negative as -14‰ indicate a late burial
478 phase, whereas the moderately negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of -7‰ can also be interpreted to reflect
479 the influence of diagenetic fluids. Other studies reported this phase to show extremely
480 negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of -38‰ (Campbell et al. 2002) which was hypothesized to indicate
481 either a long-lived seepage (Peckmann et al. 2011) or thermal decarboxylation of organic
482 matter (Peckmann et al. 2001a).

483 A comparison of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values obtained from our brachiopod shell material reveals that
484 they are either slightly lighter than or similar to those derived from shell calcite of Late
485 Triassic or Jurassic brachiopods from typical marine environments (e.g. Veizer et al. 1999;
486 Korte et al. 2005), suggesting near equilibrium with the contemporaneous seawater. Paull et
487 al. (1985, 1989) and Rio et al. (1992) studied bivalves from modern habitats around
488 hydrothermal vents, containing different chemosynthetic symbionts. The first two groups of
489 bivalves harbored methane-oxidizing bacteria, whereas the third group contained sulfide-
490 oxidizing bacteria. The soft tissue of mussels with sulfide-oxidizing symbionts is
491 characterized by $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values between -35 to -30‰, whereas those with methane-oxidizing

492 symbionts yielded even lower values, as negative as -8‰. However, the shell of neither
493 groups recorded a significantly depleted signature. Bivalve shells with sulfide-oxidizing
494 bacteria exhibit positive values (2 to 4.7‰) whereas those with methane-oxidizing bacteria
495 yielded slightly negative values (-8‰ to 3‰). These and subsequent studies of modern
496 organisms (Lietard and Pierre 2009) suggest that even if there is some relationship between
497 the shell and soft part in chemosymbiotic mussels, their shell calcite does not record the
498 depleted isotopic signature of the hydrocarbons, unlike the cement phases. During secretion of
499 shell calcite, the diluting effect of ambient seawater likely suppresses the preservation of
500 isotopic composition of seep-derived hydrocarbons. Measured values in shell material from
501 our samples are in agreement with published $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data on bivalve and brachiopod shells from
502 other seep-related carbonate occurrences, which all fall in a narrow range between -5.7 to
503 2.2‰ (e.g. Kiel and Peckmann 2008; Sandy et al. 2012).

504 Taken together, the stable isotope characteristics of different carbonate phases analyzed
505 are interpreted as a variable record of microbial oxidation of methane, thus provide
506 independent support for the inferences from paleontology and carbonate petrography. The
507 geochemical signature of the carbonate components and brachiopod shell material is in
508 accordance with other confirmed cold seep-related occurrences.

509 **Age of the brachiopod-bearing boulder**

510 The age of the brachiopod boulder can be constrained by its constituent detrital grain
511 component, which is representative of the modal mineralogy of coeval sandstone. The detrital
512 grains show salient features regarding their composition and tuffaceous character; the
513 prevalence of very angular broken and whole feldspar crystals that predominantly consist of
514 plagioclase, a lithic clast mode comprised almost entirely of volcanic lithologies, and a high
515 feldspar to quartz ratio with minor, mainly volcanic quartz are all features that illustrate a

516 strong volcanic provenance (Fig. S1). These textural and compositional properties fit closely
517 with petrofacies criteria for Lower Pliensbachian sandstone in the study area, where it is
518 defined by its distinct volcanogenic character (Johannson et al. 1997). These detrital grain
519 attributes correlate well with age-equivalent Lower Pliensbachian tuffaceous sandstone and
520 indicate a boulder age that is broadly coeval with the Early Pliensbachian age of the
521 conglomerate unit in which it was found.

522 **Conclusions**

523 The serendipitous discovery of a fossiliferous limestone boulder within a conglomerate
524 bed in the Lower Jurassic Inklin Formation at Atlin Lake precipitated a multidisciplinary
525 study to interpret the origin and significance of this peculiar fossil accumulation. The key
526 findings are as follows.

527 The monospecific assemblage of rhynchonellid brachiopods, including large-sized
528 specimens, consists of a new species, described here as *Anarhynchia smithi* sp. nov. Serial
529 sections reveal an internal morphology, notably with prominent, long, blade-like and ventrally
530 curved crura, which allows unambiguous generic assignment of the new species.
531 *Anarhynchia* has been previously known from California and Oregon, with another tentative
532 record from Argentina. The new record extends its patchy geographic distribution and
533 supports that the genus is restricted to the East Pacific margin. The conglomerate is Early
534 Pliensbachian in age on the basis of ammonoid biostratigraphy of adjacent finer-grained strata
535 within the Inklin Formation, and similarity of detrital grains within the limestone matrix to
536 volcanogenic sandstones in the formation argues for near coeval genesis of limestone. Rare
537 bioerosion features together with sedimentological characteristics suggest a deep water
538 setting.

539 Because *Anarhynchia* was previously demonstrated to be restricted to cold seep and
540 hydrothermal vent sites, petrographic and isotope geochemical analyses were conducted to
541 establish if this also applies to its new occurrence. The limestone exhibits a characteristic
542 paragenesis of early and late diagenetic components, including banded-fibrous calcite cement,
543 ferroan calcite, equant calcite spar, observed within the brachiopod shells and vugs together
544 with a micrite matrix. Staining suggests that the isopachous banded-fibrous cement phase was
545 probably originally aragonitic. These phases commonly form at cold seeps, and the
546 occurrence of yellow calcite is another distinctive and diagnostic feature. The presence of
547 abundant pyrite embedded in micrite matrix is likely derived from sulfate reduction, also in
548 line with the inferred origin as seep limestone.

549 Results of component-specific stable isotope analyses fully agree with earlier similar
550 studies on seep-related limestones and brachiopods. Derived from bacterial oxidation of
551 methane and other hydrocarbons and mixed with less negative carbon sources, the most
552 depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, down to -39.8% , were measured on the banded-fibrous early cement
553 phase. Subsequently precipitated phases show gradually less negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. The matrix
554 also bears the isotopic signature of hydrocarbon-related origin, but the ferroan calcite and
555 equant spar were influenced by diagenetic fluids, as evidenced by their more negative $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
556 values. The least negative carbon isotopic composition is found in brachiopod shell material,
557 indicating effective mixing of seep fluids with ambient seawater.

558 These findings strongly support that *Anarhynchia* is a member of chemosynthesis-based
559 fossil communities. With its length of up to 9 cm, the new species ranks among the largest
560 known Mesozoic brachiopods. Speculation that its giant size owes to harboring
561 chemosymbionts calls for further studies to provide direct evidence. *Anarhynchia* was cited as
562 a unique example of a genus with affinity to both cold seep and hydrothermal vent. With the
563 demonstration of three separate and distinctive species, it also serves as an example of

564 allopatric speciation among nearly coeval but geographically scattered seep and vent sites
565 along the active margin of western North America. This study adds to a growing database of
566 Mesozoic cold seep biota and provides evidence that prior to the Late Cretaceous, it was
567 strongly dominated by dimerelloid brachiopods.

568 **Acknowledgements**

569 Paul L. Smith provided long-standing support for our studies of the Cordilleran Jurassic
570 in many ways. Insightful discussions on petrography of cold seep carbonates with Axel
571 Munnecke and Jörn Peckmann are gratefully acknowledged. Mariann Bosnakoff provided
572 help with photography. Michelle Coyne curated the fossil type material. This is MTA-MTM-
573 ELTE Paleo contribution No. XYZ.

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754

756 Table 1. Measurements of *Anarhynchia smithi* n. sp.

GSC type No. or specimen No. ^a	Length (mm)	Width (mm)	Thickness (mm)	No. of primary ribs
GSC 139294 (<i>pt</i>)	41.5	38.5	23.8	15
GSC 139295 (<i>ht</i>)	28	26.5	12.5	10
GSC 139296	43	53	30.5	14
GSC 139297 (<i>pt</i>)	52.5	54	–	12
GSC 139298 (<i>pt</i>)	62	63	34	11
GSC 139299	35	38	–	10
GSC 139300	90	–	–	11
C-203329/D	40.3	–	19	12
C-203329/I	28.3	31	–	9
C-203329/K	–	39	–	9
C-203329/L	39	40	–	12

757 ^a *ht*: holotype, *pt*: paratype

758

Figure captions

760 **Fig. 1.** Location map and geologic context of the occurrence of *Anarhynchia smithi* n. sp. (A)
761 Schematic distribution of the major tectonostratigraphic terranes (CC – Cache Creek; QN –
762 Quesnel; ST – Stikine; YT – Yukon-Tanana) in the Intermontane Belt of the Canadian
763 Cordillera (after Nelson and Colpron 2007). Dashed rectangle marks the area shown in panel
764 B. (B) Regional geological setting of the main tectonostratigraphic units in the southern Atlin
765 Lake area (after Johannson et al. 1997). Dashed rectangle marks the area shown in panel C.
766 (C) Simplified geological map of Copper Island, Atlin Lake (after Wight et al. 2004), showing
767 the brachiopod locality and adjacent ammonite localities of different Pliensbachian ammonite
768 zones (from Johannson 1994).

769 **Fig. 2.** Outcrop and host rock of the *Anarhynchia*-bearing boulder. (A) View of outcrop of
770 conglomerate beds in the Inklin Formation in Copper Island at Atlin Lake. Note circled
771 hammer for scale. (B) Coarse pebble-cobble conglomerate with sparse boulders showing
772 typical range of clast-size, shape, and distribution. The large outsized boulder in center of
773 photo is of the same approximate size as the *Anarhynchia*-bearing boulder.

774 **Fig. 3.** *Anarhynchia*-bearing boulder displaying range of juvenile and mature forms indicative
775 of an in-situ accumulation. The well-developed rounding/sphericity of other conglomerate
776 clasts is not evident on boulder surfaces. (A) View of weathered surface of boulder. (B)
777 Drawing of *Anarhynchia* shells and fragments within the boulder.

778 **Fig. 4.** *Anarhynchia smithi* n. sp. All figures are natural size. GSC locality No. C-203329,
779 Copper Island in Atlin Lake, B.C., Lower Pliensbachian. Specimens are identified with
780 Geological Survey of Canada type numbers. 1. GSC 139294, paratype, serially sectioned

781 specimen; a: dorsal view, b: ventral view, c: lateral view. 2. GSC 139295, holotype; a: dorsal
782 view, b: ventral view, c: anterior view, d: lateral view. 3. GSC 139296, dorsal view. 4. GSC
783 139297, paratype; a: ventral view, b: dorsal view of fragmentary valve and beak. 5. GSC
784 139298, paratype; a: dorsal view, b: ventral view. 6. GSC 139299, a: ventral view, b: dorsal
785 view of beak. 7. GSC 139300, ventral view.

786 **Fig. 5.** Transverse serial sections of a paratype specimen (GSC 139294) of *Anarhynchia*
787 *smithi* n. sp. See text for description.

788 **Fig. 6.** Reconstruction of the crura of *Anarhynchia smithi* n. sp., on the basis of serial
789 sections. Note submerginiform habit with end of blades approaching the ventral valve, hence
790 also resembling ensiform type. See text for discussion.

791 **Fig. 7.** Comparison of morphometric data of *Anarhynchia smithi* n. sp. (solid squares,
792 magenta in color) with other North American species in the genus. *A. gabbi* is marked by
793 solid blue triangles, whereas inverted solid triangles, light blue in color, indicate *A. cf. gabbi*
794 specimens from the hydrothermal vent deposit of Little et al. (1999, 2004). A yet unnamed
795 third species from Oregon, *A. sp.* is denoted by brown unfilled squares. Convex hulls show
796 minimal or no overlap between species. Source data and references are listed in Table S1. (A)
797 Graph showing number of primary ribs vs. length of shell. (B) Graph showing convexity
798 (ratio of thickness and average of length and width) vs. width/length ratio $[T/((L+W)/2)]$ vs.
799 W/L .

800 **Fig. 8.** Photomicrographs illustrating characteristic petrographic features of *Anarhynchia*
801 shells and their filling. All scale bars 600 μm . (A) Quartz-, feldspar-, and pyrite-rich filling of
802 the brachiopod shell. Banded-fibrous cement (*bfc*) developed as isopachous layer, and

803 subsequently formed dark micrite with abundant pyrite. Plane polarized light. (B) Brachiopod
804 shell fragments (*sh*) surrounded by isopachous fibrous cement phase (*bfc*) and equant calcite
805 spar (*ec*). Cross polarized light. (C) The paragenetic sequence of cements. Banded-fibrous
806 cement (*bfc*) is the earliest phase, followed by ferroan calcite (*fc*) and equant calcite spar (*ec*).
807 *sh* – brachiopod shell. Plane polarized light. (D) The same three cement phases as in (C) after
808 staining. Note the purple color of the originally brownish cement due to its Fe content. *bfc* –
809 banded-fibrous cement, *fc* – ferroan calcite, *ec* – equant calcite spar. (E) Cavity filled by
810 yellow calcite. Plane polarized light. (F) Micrite with abundant detrital grains, quartz and
811 plant fragments, forming intraclasts (*ic*) of commonly, but not exclusively, rounded shapes. *sh*
812 – brachiopod shell, *bfc* – banded-fibrous cement, *ec* – equant calcite. Cross polarized light.
813 (G) Detrital-rich micrite formed beside rounded clasts of micrite clots, which are surrounded
814 by calcite. Areas containing numerous clasts and clots are bordered by banded-fibrous cement
815 (*bfc*). Plane polarized light. (H) Fibrous microcrystalline silica (*fms*) grown inside a
816 brachiopod shell and overgrown by quartz crystals (*q*). Cross polarized light.

817 **Fig. 9.** Photomicrographs illustrating characteristic petrographic features in
818 cathodoluminescence (CL). All scale bars 500 μm . (A) Matrix containing abundant angular
819 mineral grains showing brown to orange luminescence. (B) The same cement phases as in
820 Fig. 8 C, D under CL. The banded fibrous cement (*bfc*) is nonluminescent. The cement phase
821 containing some Fe (*fc*) shows different luminescence. The equant calcite spar (*ec*) shows
822 bright luminescence. (C, D) The same phases in cross polarized light and under CL, showing
823 the recrystallized development of the banded fibrous cement (*bfc*) and micrite with abundant
824 fine detritus (*m*). Where the fibrous cement is replaced by coarser calcite crystals the CL
825 image is mottled with pale-orange, brown color. The micrite with abundant pyrite shows
826 bright-orange luminescence.

827 **Fig. 10.** Miscellaneous rare features observed in thin sections. All scale bars 600 μm . (A)
828 Rounded and sack-shaped traces of borings. (B) Thin bivalve shell, surrounded by banded-
829 fibrous cement. Note that contrary to the more common brachiopod shells, the bivalve shell
830 lacks fibrous microstructure.

831 **Fig. 11.** $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ – $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ cross plot of measured component-specific stable isotope ratios and their
832 comparison with published data on fossiliferous cold seep carbonates from other localities.
833 Reference data sources: a – Peckmann et al. 1999; b – Peckmann et al. 2001*a*; c – Peckmann
834 et al. 2001*b*; d – Campbell et al. 2002; e – Peckmann et al. 2003; f – Birgel et al. 2006; g –
835 Peckmann et al. 2007; h – Kiel and Peckmann 2008; i – Peckmann et al. 2011; j – Sandy et al.
836 2012; k – Smrzka et al. 2015; l – Hryniewicz et al. 2016; m – Miyajima et al. 2016; n – Kiel et
837 al. 2017.

838

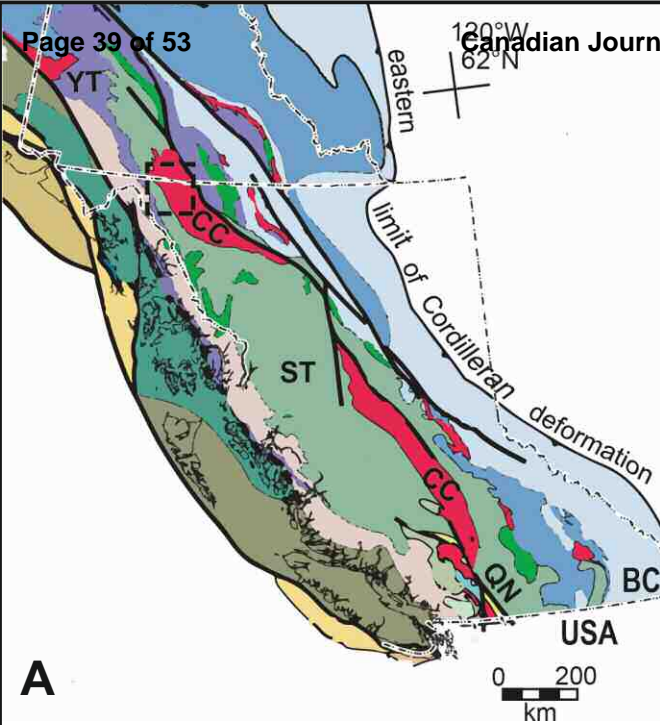
List of Supplementary material

840 Fig. S1. Photomicrographs illustrating characteristic petrographic features and tuffaceous
841 nature of a detrital grain-dominated part in the filling of a brachiopod shell. (A) Plane
842 polarized light; (B) Cross polarized light. Scale bar is 600 μm .

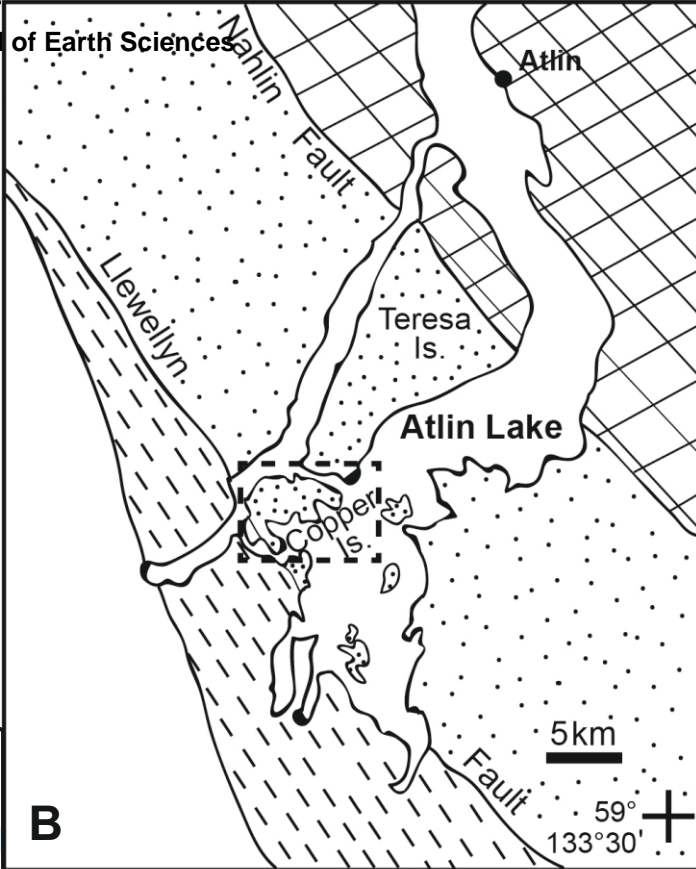
843 Table S1. Measurements of all *Anarhynchia* specimens in this study and figured in published
844 sources.

845 Table S2. Stable isotope data of carbonate phases of *Anarhynchia smithi* specimens.

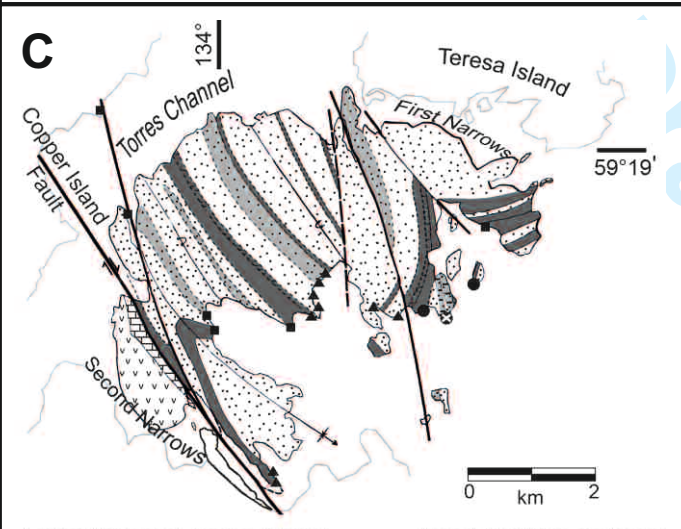
846 Table S3. Elemental geochemical data of carbonate phases of *Anarhynchia smithi* specimens.



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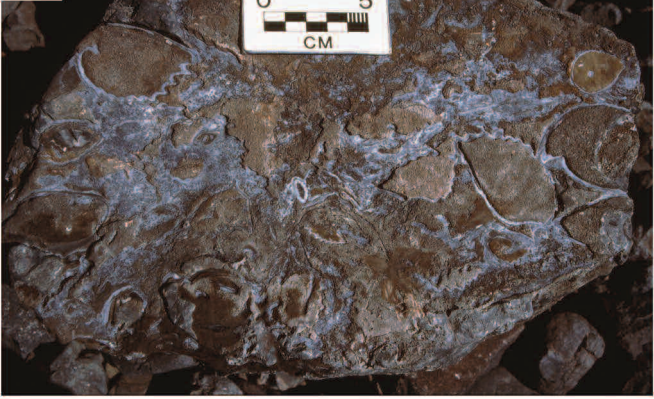
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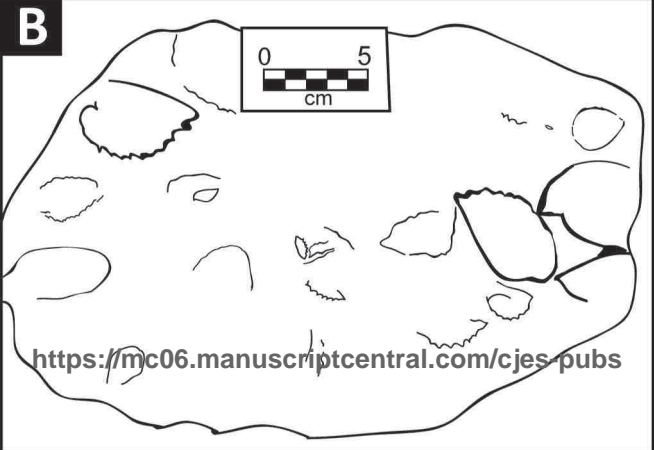
- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>Lower Jurassic Laberge Group</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Greywacke Rhythmically bedded argillite Quartz-rich sandstone and wacke Irregular beds of dark argillite <p>Upper Triassic Stuhini Group</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sinwa Formation limestone Stuhini Group volcanics | <p>Fossil localities and ages</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Kunae Zone Fربولdi Zone Whiteavesi Zone <i>Anarhynchia</i> locality |
|--|--|

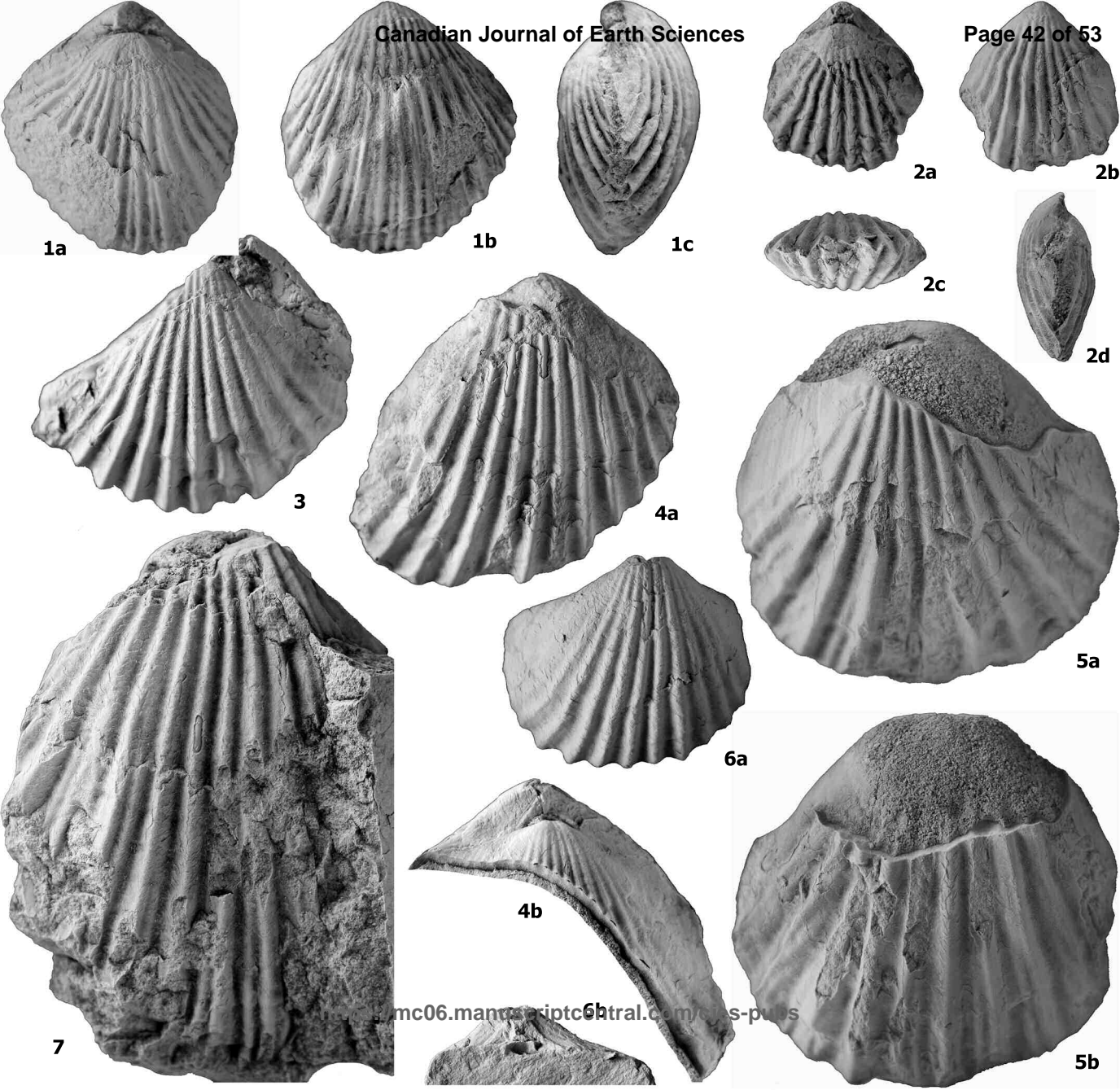
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- Cache Creek t.
 - Laberge Group
 - other Stikine t.

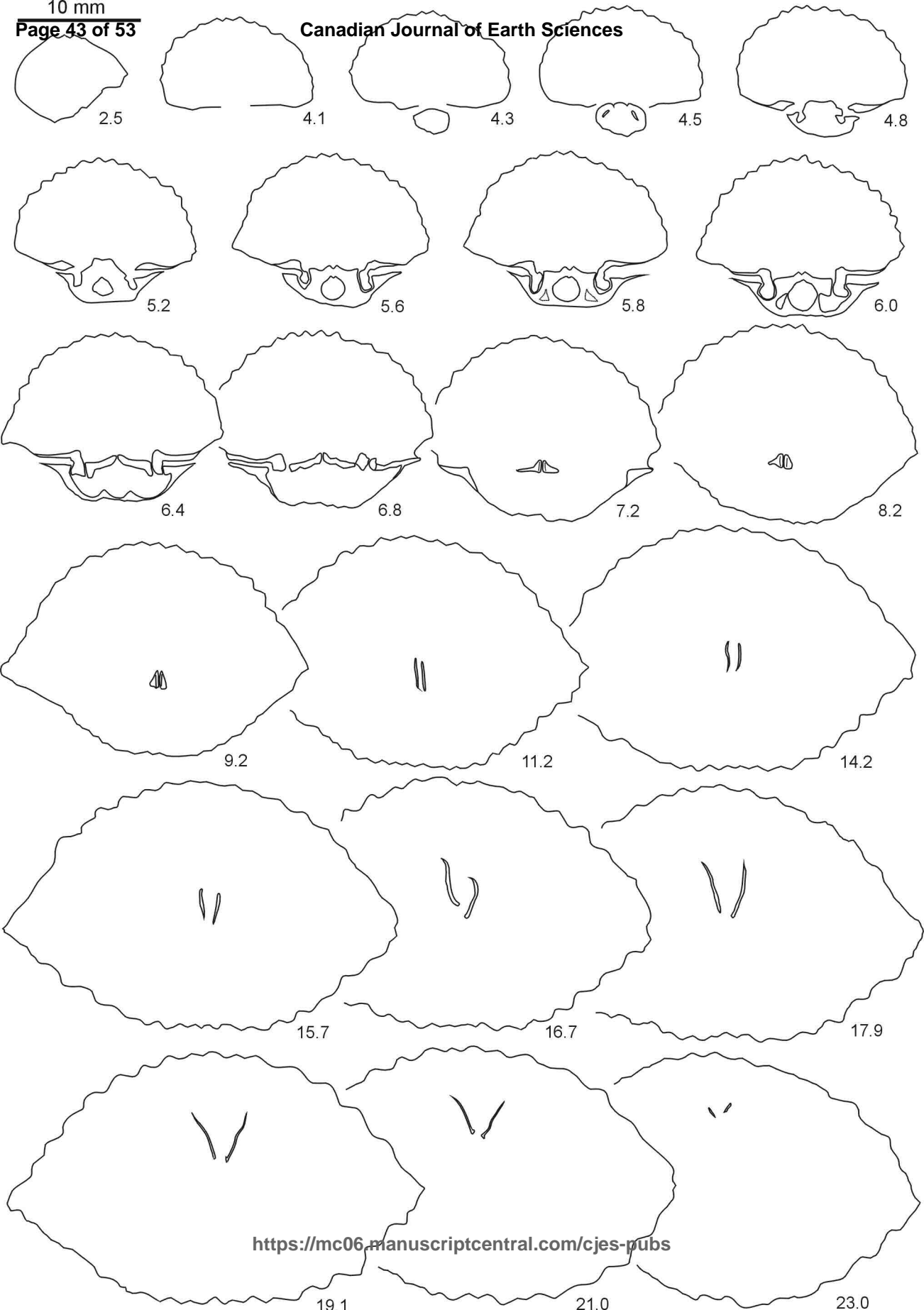
A**B**



B

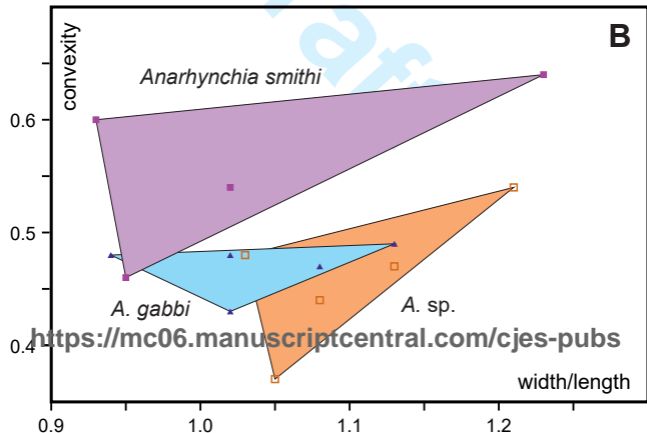
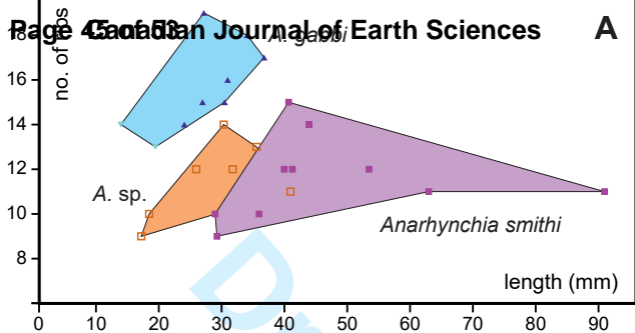


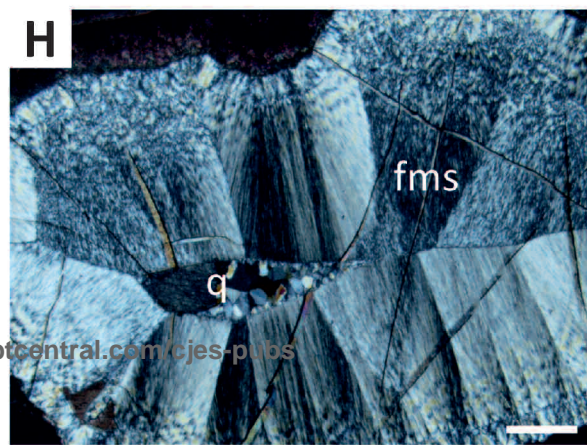
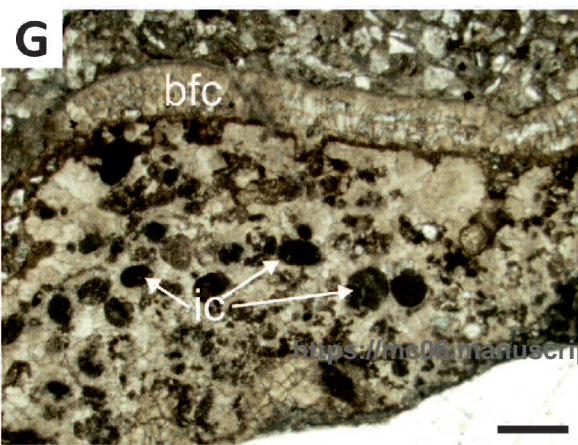
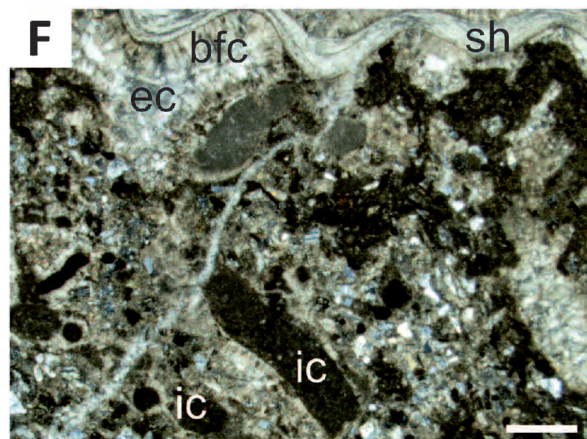
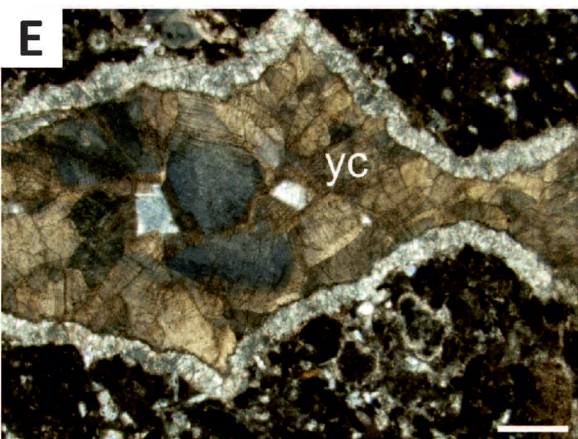
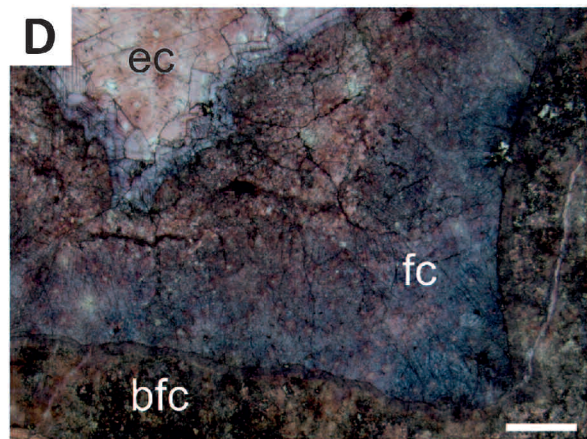
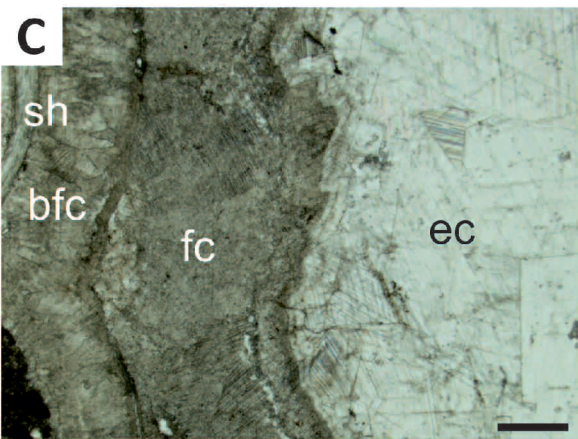
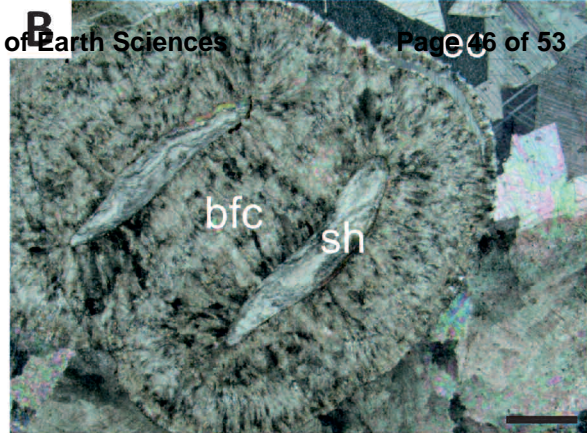
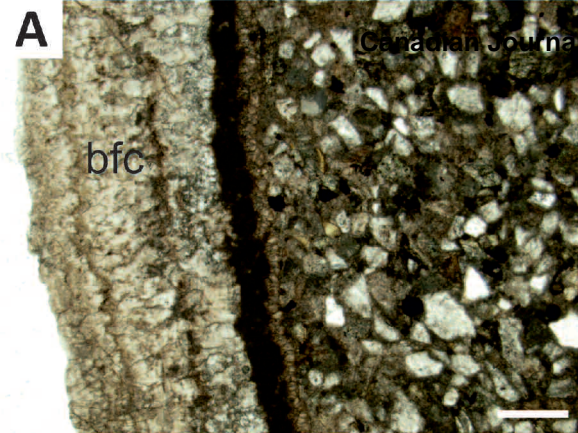


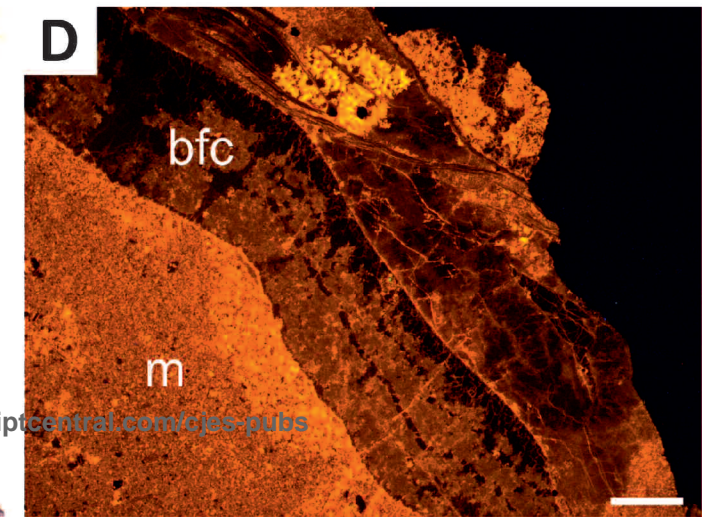
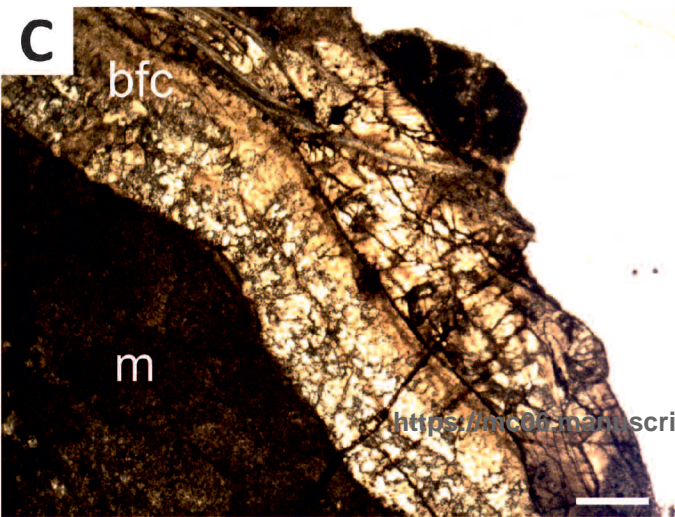
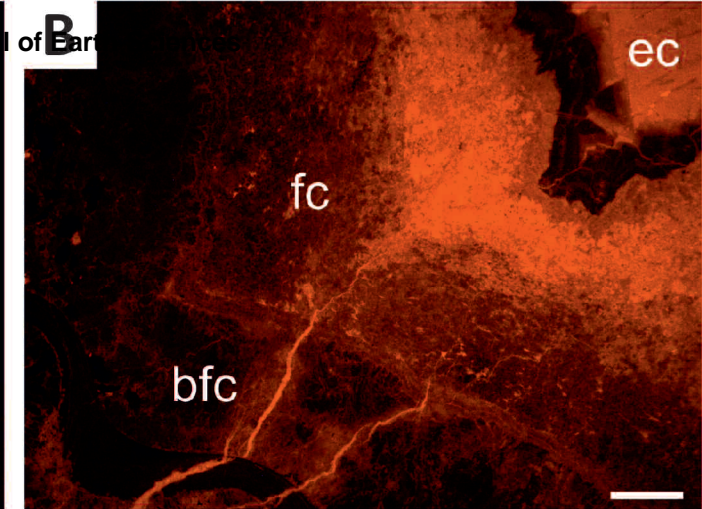
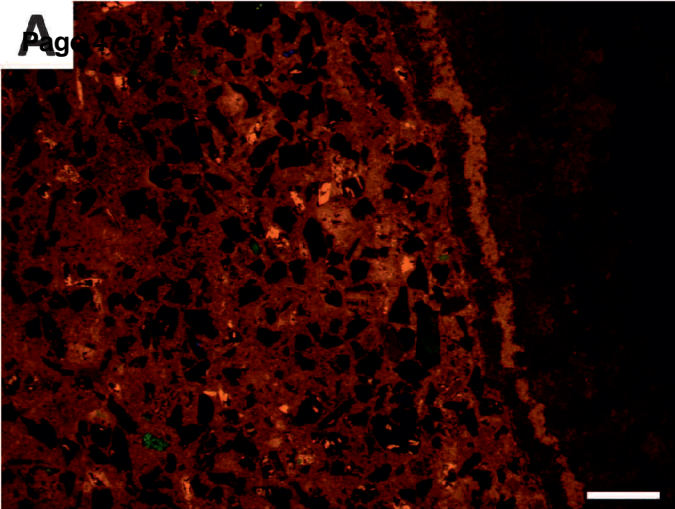


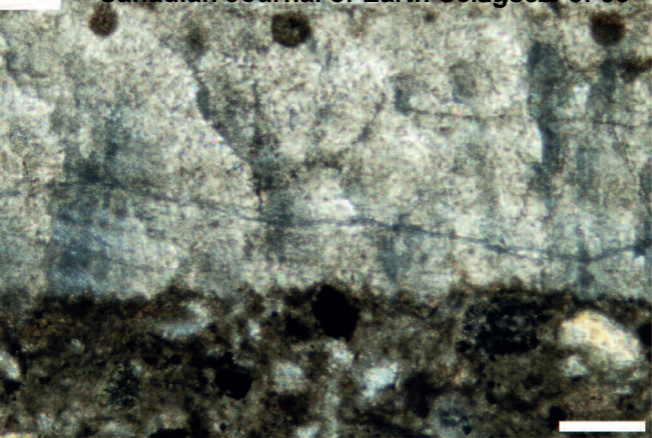
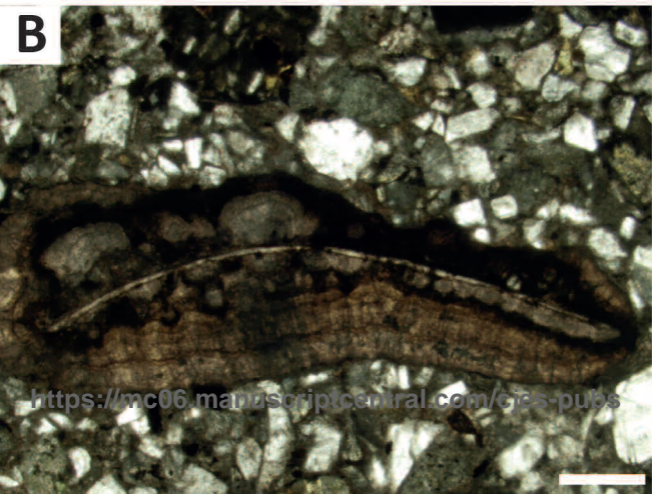


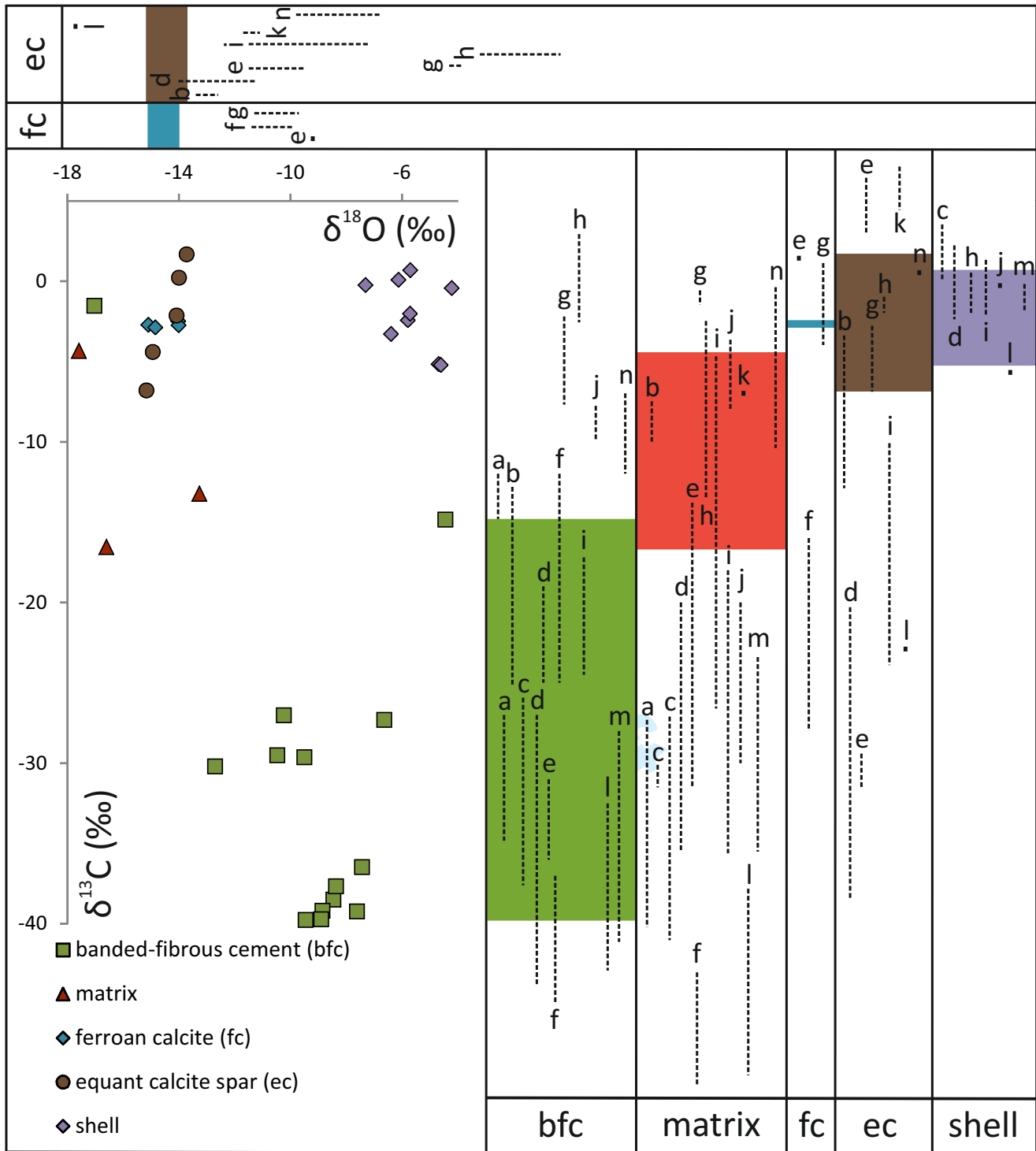
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A**B**



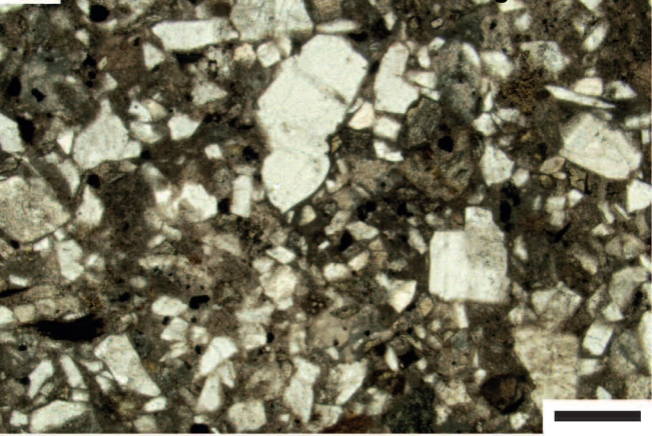
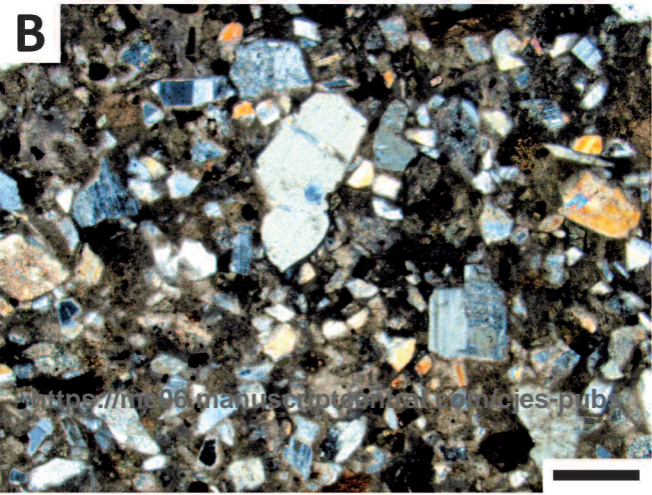
A**B**

Table S1. Measurements of all *Anarhynchia* specimens in this study and figured in published sources.

Name	Locality	Specimen No. ^a	Length (mm) ^b	Width (mm) ^b	W/L	Thickness (mm)	Convexity (2Th/(L+W))	No. of primary ribs ^b	Reference
<i>Anarhynchia smithi</i>	Copper Island, Atlin Lake, BC	GSC 139296	43	53	1.23	30.5	0.64	14	this study
<i>Anarhynchia smithi</i>	Copper Island, Atlin Lake, BC	GSC 139299	35	38	1.09	–	–	10	this study
<i>Anarhynchia smithi</i>	Copper Island, Atlin Lake, BC	GSC 139297 (pt)	52.5	54	1.03	–	–	12	this study
<i>Anarhynchia smithi</i>	Copper Island, Atlin Lake, BC	C-203329/D	40.3	–	–	19	–	12	this study
<i>Anarhynchia smithi</i>	Copper Island, Atlin Lake, BC	GSC 139298 (pt)	62	63	1.02	34	0.54	11	this study
<i>Anarhynchia smithi</i>	Copper Island, Atlin Lake, BC	GSC 139300	90	–	–	–	–	11	this study
<i>Anarhynchia smithi</i>	Copper Island, Atlin Lake, BC	C-203329/I	28.3	31	1.10	–	–	9	this study
<i>Anarhynchia smithi</i>	Copper Island, Atlin Lake, BC	GSC 139295 (ht)	28	26.5	0.95	12.5	0.46	10	this study
<i>Anarhynchia smithi</i>	Copper Island, Atlin Lake, BC	C-203329/K	–	39	–	–	–	9	this study
<i>Anarhynchia smithi</i>	Copper Island, Atlin Lake, BC	C-203329/L	39	40	1.03	–	–	12	this study
<i>Anarhynchia smithi</i>	Copper Island, Atlin Lake, BC	GSC 139294 (pt)	41.5	38.5	0.93	23.8	0.60	18	this study
<i>Anarhynchia gabbi</i>	Bedford Canyon, Santa Ana Mts, CA	J.1223 (ht)	29.5	32	1.08	14.5	0.47	15	Ager 1968
<i>Anarhynchia gabbi</i>	Bedford Canyon, Santa Ana Mts, CA	MS 1684	23.1	23.5	1.02	10	0.43	14	Sandy 2001
<i>Anarhynchia gabbi</i>	Bedford Canyon, Santa Ana Mts, CA	MS 1685	26.2	24.6	0.94	12.3	0.48	19	Sandy 2001
<i>Anarhynchia gabbi</i>	Bedford Canyon, Santa Ana Mts, CA	MS 1686	33.1	33.8	1.02	16.2	0.48	18	Little et al. 2004
<i>Anarhynchia gabbi</i>	Bedford Canyon, Santa Ana Mts, CA	MS 1687	29.2	33.1	1.13	15.4	0.49	18	Sandy 2001
<i>Anarhynchia gabbi</i>	Bedford Canyon, Santa Ana Mts, CA	–	35.8	37.7	1.05	–	–	17	Sandy 2010
<i>Anarhynchia gabbi</i>	Bedford Canyon, Santa Ana Mts, CA	–	26	26.9	1.03	–	–	15	Sandy 2010
<i>Anarhynchia gabbi</i>	Bedford Canyon, Santa Ana Mts, CA	–	30	27.8	0.93	–	–	16	Sandy 2010
<i>Anarhynchia cf. gabbi</i>	Figueroa, San Rafael Mts, CA	BMNH VF 111	18.5	16	0.86	–	–	13	Little et al. 1999,
<i>Anarhynchia cf. gabbi</i>	Figueroa, San Rafael Mts, CA	BMNH VF 113	13	–	–	–	–	14	Little et al. 2004
<i>Anarhynchia</i> sp. nov. aff. <i>gabbi</i>	Aldrich Mtn, OR	UCS	40	42	1.05	15	0.37	11	Manceñido and Dagys 1992
<i>Anarhynchia</i> sp. nov. aff. <i>gabbi</i>	Aldrich Mtn, OR	MLP 24441	17.5	18	1.03	8.5	0.48	10	Manceñido and Dagys 1992
<i>Anarhynchia</i> sp.	4 mi N of Seneca, OR	B 81622	16.25	17.5	1.08	7.5	0.44	9	Sandy 2001
<i>Anarhynchia</i> sp.	4 mi N of Seneca, OR	B 81621	25	28.1	1.13	12.5	0.47	12	Sandy 2001
<i>Anarhynchia</i> sp.	4 mi N of Seneca, OR	B 81620	29.375	35.6	1.21	17.5	0.54	14	Sandy 2001
<i>Anarhynchia</i> sp.	Seneca, OR	LSJU	34.6	35.7	1.03	–	–	13	Sandy 2010
<i>Anarhynchia</i> sp.	Seneca, OR	–	30.8	36.2	1.18	–	–	12	Sandy 2010
<i>Anarhynchia</i> (?) sp.	Rio Atuel, Mendoza, Argentina	MLP 24426	24	24	1	11	0.46	13	Manceñido and Dagys 1992

^a ht: holotype, pt: paratype; ^b estimated values in italics

Table S2. Stable isotope data of carbonate phases of *Anarhynchia smithi* specimens.

Sample No.	Component type	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$
C20B2	banded-fibrous cement	-38.5	-8.5
C20C3	banded-fibrous cement	-30.2	-12.7
C0C5	banded-fibrous cement	-1.5	-17.0
C0C6	banded-fibrous cement	-37.7	-8.4
F2H	banded-fibrous cement	-39.2	-7.6
F3H	banded-fibrous cement	-29.5	-10.5
F4H	banded inner cement	-39.2	-8.9
COB6	banded-fibrous cement	-36.5	-7.4
COB7.1	banded-fibrous cement	-39.7	-8.9
COB7.2	banded-fibrous cement	-39.8	-9.5
C20A6	banded-fibrous cement	-27.3	-6.6
C20A7	banded-fibrous cement	-29.6	-9.5
COA8	banded-fibrous cement	-14.8	-4.4
COA9	banded-fibrous cement	-27.0	-10.2
C20B5	matrix	-16.6	-16.6
COD2	matrix	-13.2	-13.3
F1H	matrix	-4.3	-17.6
COB8	shell	-3.3	-6.4
COB9	shell	-2.4	-5.8
C20C1	shell	-0.4	-4.2
C20C2	shell	-5.2	-4.7
C0C4	shell	0.1	-6.1
COD1	shell	0.7	-5.7
COE6	shell	-0.2	-7.3
F5H	shell	-5.2	-4.6
C20B4	shell (umbo)	-2.0	-5.7
C20A1	equant calcite spar	0.2	-14.0
C20A2	equant calcite spar	-2.1	-14.1
COA13	equant calcite spar	1.7	-13.7
COE1	equant calcite spar	-6.8	-15.2
COE2	equant calcite spar	-4.4	-14.9
COA10	ferroan calcite	-2.7	-15.1
COA11	ferroan calcite	-2.9	-14.8
COA12.1	ferroan calcite	-2.5	-14.0
COA12.2	ferroan calcite	-2.7	-14.0

Table S3. Elemental geochemical data of carbonate phases of *Anarhynchia smithi* specimens.

Sample No.	Component type	Ca (%)	Fe (ppm)	Mg (ppm)	Mn (ppm)
C20A6	banded-fibrous cement	32.9	1508	7484	434
C20B1	shell	25.5	6953	7415	1275
C20B2	banded-fibrous cement	31.4	4214	19177	839
C20B4	shell (umbo)	40.5	2079	7011	1155
C20B5	matrix	13.4	15559	5868	1964
C20C1	shell	29.1	5134	8261	1017
C20C2	shell	19.3	4164	4481	796
C20C3	banded-fibrous cement	26.4	5169	17833	809

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